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ABSTRACT

Data collected from 1967 to 1972 during the National Longitudinal Surveys was used to examine the labor force behavior of the mature women's cohort (women who were thirty to forty-four years old in 1967) as well as their attitudes toward work and home. The findings include the following: while white women increased their labor force participation levels, black women decreased theirs; since black labor force participation rates were higher than white levels in 1967, the net result was a convergence in rates between the races over the five-year period, particularly for women who were separated or divorced; black employed women greatly improved their earnings between 1966 and 1971; black women showed overall shifts toward more positive work attitudes but not to the extent that white women did; and whereas the work attitudes of white working women were much more positive than the attitudes of their nonworking counterparts, black women not at work felt as strongly as black women at work that work was necessary. (This paper includes fifteen tables of data.) (EM)

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THE NLS MATURE WOMEN'S COHORT: A SOCIOECONOMIC OVERVIEW

by

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April, 1978

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The NLS Mature Women's Cohort: A Socioeconomic Overview

The NLS mature women's cohort in several important ways represents a transition generation of American women. Women who were 30 to 44 years of age in 1967 were born between 1923 and 1937. The older members of this age group were born in the post-World War I decade of the 1920s, spent a substantial portion of their childhood in the depression years and entered adulthood during the second World War. In contrast, the youngest members of the cohort were born during the depression, spent their childhood years during World War II and attained maturity during the mid and late 1950s. To the extent that adult behavior patterns and attitudes reflects childhood and early adult experiences, one might expect considerable heterogeneity in how members of this 30 to 44 year old cohort of women behave in the market place and view their adult work and family roles.

In addition to variations within this group due to different background situations, there also are the more anticipated differences due to the fact that the older women in the cohort are at a different point in the life cycle than the younger women. Thus, sociodemographic and economic characteristics for the group as a whole may disguise major variations within the group.

Aside from variations in behavior patterns and attitudes due to the above secular and aging effects, it is generally acknowledged that the 1967 to 1972 period was one of significant social and economic change within our society; as such, phenomena which may have been pronounced in 1967 might no longer have been so in 1972 and vice versa.

Within the context of the above factors, this paper has several objectives. The first objective is to provide a general background about the cohort to help interpret other papers presented at the conference. A second objective is to illustrate that generalizations made concerning the relationship between various socioeconomic and demographic factors and differing dimensions of labor force activity for the overall cohort should be interpreted cautiously. Finally, a number of the behavioral and attitudinal trends presented in this paper represent dramatic new evidence about relatively recent patterns of change in labor force behavior and attitudes concerning work attachment. The uniqueness of this evidence reflects the uniqueness of the data set. The longitudinal nature of the data enables one to follow the same women over a five year period--1967 to 1972--which, as will be demonstrated, evidenced major changes in social and economic behavior patterns and attitudes.

An Abbreviated Demographic Profile[1]

While the basic demographics for this group of women may be of some interest in their own light, they are included here primarily as an aid for interpreting the subsequent sections on labor force, income and attitudinal patterns.

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[1]The separate black and white statistics presented are weighted so as to properly represent representative national cross-sections of black and white women. The sample sizes or "Ns" in the tables indicate the actual number of respondents in the relevant category.

Because of major variations between black and white women in this sample, virtually all of the discussion which follows will be for the black and white respondents separately.[2] About 88 percent of the white women and only two thirds of the black women were married and living with their husband in 1967.[3] This higher incidence of marital disruption among black women is associated with higher levels of work participation, as will be shown below. Also, the vast majority--about 80 percent--of women of both races had school age children. Even more relevant from a labor force perspective, slightly over one third of both black and white women in 1967 still had a youngest child under the age of 6. By 1972, the figure had declined to around 15 percent. As may be noted in Table 1, this decline partly reflected the aging process and in addition was associated with earlier patterns of childbearing among some members of this cohort of women. In particular, women who were 35 to 39 showed a significant decline in the presence of preschool age children over the five year period; partly reflecting

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[2]Also, all comparisons across years will be limited to women interviewed in all years to avoid problems associated with selective biases due to non-random attrition patterns. In addition, all of the data in this section are for 1967 unless otherwise specified.

[3]The white non married spouse present group included 6.3 percent separated or divorced, 1.6 percent widowed and 4.5 percent never married. The Black non married spouse present group was predominantly separated or divorced (21.6 percent), 5.2 percent widowed and 7.1 percent never married. This, of course, varied somewhat by age. By age 40-44; about 2.5 percent of the white women and 7.0 percent of the black women were widowed. These percentages represent the percentages of the total respondents, regardless of marital status.

Table 1. PERCENTAGE OF MATURE WOMEN'S COHORT WITH PRESCHOOL CHILDREN IN 1967 AND 1972 BY RACE AND AGE[1/]

Race and age	Number of respondents	1967	Number of respondents	1972
Whites	3,005	36.7	3,005	14.3
30-34	968	57.3	(2/)	(2/)
35-39	951	37.5	968	27.4
40-44	1,086	17.7	951	13.1
45-49	(2/)	(2/)	1,086	3.8
Blacks	1,110	38.7	1,110	15.9
30-34	338	57.0	(2/)	(2/)
35-39	367	43.1	338	28.8
40-44	405	18.4	367	16.9
45-49	(2/)	(2/)	405	3.6

1/ Sample limited to women interviewed in all survey years.
2/ Data not available.

an earlier average age for completion of childbearing for women who were 35 to 39 in 1972 compared to their 1967 counterparts.[4] This decline would tend to be associated with increasing labor force participation rates for that five year age group over the five year period.

The bulk of the women in the sample live in urban areas (65 percent for the white women and 72 percent for the black women). However, the racial distribution of residences within metropolitan area varies greatly with fully 60 percent of all the black women living in central cities as compared to only 24 percent for their white counterparts. This geographic composition does not represent any major shift for these women from when they were 15 years old.[5]

From a socioeconomic perspective, about a third of the white women are high school dropouts (had completed eleven or less years of school) and about twenty percent have at least some college

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[4]Women who were 35 to 39 in 1972 were on average about 20 years of age in 1955. This represented approximately the peak of the post World War baby boom. For example, retrospective current population data indicate that the cohort of women born in 1935 to 1939 had their children at earlier ages than any of the surrounding birth cohorts. However, their age specific fertility was below that of the other two preceding five year cohorts above the age of thirty. See Table 3 in "Fertility Histories and Birth Expectations of American Women: June 1971," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 263. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1974.

[5]The data referencing age 15 are somewhat cruder estimates than the current residence status information. However, the crude comparison between current status and age 15 shows a very close match in urban-rural residence status.

education. In contrast, about 60 percent of the black women are high school dropouts and ten percent have attended or completed college. There is also significant variation by age within the mature women's cohort with older women in the cohort having completed less education than the younger women.[6] This represents a major transition from their parents' generation as fully 67 percent of the white women and about 80 percent of the blacks had mothers who had not completed high school. Dropout estimates were even higher for the respondent's fathers.

In addition to formal educational experiences, there also are large numbers of women in the cohort who are enrolled in occupational training programs of one type or another. The percentages having taken training in any one year varied from between 13 to 17 percent for the white respondents to between 14 and 18 percent for the black women.[7] For both black and white women, the trend over the 1969 to

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[6]This trend toward increasing educational attainment continued to the younger women cohort of 14 to 24 year old women as only 22 percent of the white 20 to 24 year old women not enrolled in school (in 1968) and 40 percent of the 20 to 24 year old black not enrolled women were high school dropouts. This is the first of several comparisons with the younger cohort of women aged 14 to 24 in 1968 which will be made in this paper.

[7]Unless otherwise specified, all of the remaining data in this paper will focus on women in the cohort who were interviewed in all survey years. While this may slightly affect the national representativeness of some of the data it will increase the meaningfulness of the data from the perspective of cross-year comparisons. Effectively, what this does is to introduce any later year sample attrition biases into the earlier years. However, reflecting the low levels of attrition for the cohort (11 percent for white respondents and 13 percent for blacks in 1972), this is a relatively minor problem.

1972 (the only years for which this information was available) period was downward, partly reflecting the fact that the older women in the cohort are less likely to be in a training program. In addition, for black women, there was a definite secular trend toward lower levels of training participation over the three year period.

Health problems are not an inconsequential problem for this cohort of women. Overall, by 1972 about 17 percent of the white and about a quarter of the black women indicated that they had a health problem that limited the amount or kind of work they could do. Among the white women, about 13 percent of those who were 35 to 39 in 1972 indicated a health problem compared with about 22 percent for the 45 to 49 year old group. Comparable estimates for the black women were 18 and 33 percent, respectively. Thus, as this cohort ages, the health factor will affect the ability of increasing numbers of women in this cohort to participate in the labor force.

Commitment to the Work Force

Even a casual glance at Table 2 suggests several important differences between the labor force activity of the black and white respondents. Black labor force participation rates at all ages and in all years are higher than the white rates. It is of some interest, however, to note several dramatic trends that were evidenced during the 1967 to 1972 period and which resulted in a significant convergence of labor force participation rates between the two racial groups. In 1967 the overall labor force rate for the white cohort was 46.8 percent, about 21 points below that for the black group. Over the

Table 2. LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES, 1967 TO 1974, BY RACE AND AGE IN 1967[1/]

Race and age in 1967	Number of respondents	1967	1969	1971	1972	1974
Whites	3,005	46.8	50.4	54.7	55.8	59.1
30-34	968	43.3	45.2	51.4	53.7	59.2
35-39	951	46.4	51.3	56.4	55.9	61.6
40-44	1,086	50.3	54.3	56.2	57.4	56.6
Blacks	1,110	67.7	67.9	65.7	64.3	66.1
30-34	338	62.3	65.9	64.0	62.3	69.2
35-39	367	70.4	70.8	65.4	64.0	67.0
40-44	405	70.0	66.9	67.5	66.3	62.6

1/Sample limited to women interviewed in all survey years.

five year period, the white rate gradually rose to 55.8 percent while the black rate declined slightly to 64.3 percent. As a result, the gap in rates between the two groups was more than halved to less than nine percentage points by 1972.

Further insight into this trend may be gained by examining labor force participation patterns for women who were 35 to 39 and 40 to 44 years of age in 1967 and 1972. These two five-year age groups overlapped both the 1967 and 1972 survey years and thus make possible separate examination of both the aging and secular components of the change. For white women, some of the increase in the overall level of labor force participation reflects the fact that labor force rates increase as the women age past the prime child bearing years. Most dramatic, however, are the sharp secular increases in age-specific labor force participation rates: as may be noted in Table 3, the labor force participation rate for white 35 to 39 year old women increased by 7.3 points from 46.4 to 53.7 percent between 1967 and 1972 and the rate for 40 to 44 year old women increased by almost six percentage points. For the most part, the rates specific to marital status also showed increases.

In contrast, the age specific black labor force rates declined sharp for virtually all marital status categories. By far the largest decreases are for black women who either were separated or divorced. From a slightly different perspective, in 1967, black separated or divorced 35 to 39 year old women had labor force participation rates about 22 points above those for their white counterparts. By 1972,

Table 3. LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES IN 1967 AND 1972 BY AGE, RACE AND MARITAL STATUS[1/]

Race and marital status	Age 35 to 39					Age 40 to 44				
	Number of respondents	1967	Number of respondents	1972	Change 1967 to 1972	Number of respondents	1967	Number of respondents	1972	Change 1967 to 1972
Whites	951	46.4	968	53.7	+ 7.3	1,086	50.3	951	55.9	+ 5.6
Married, spouse present	835	43.1	832	49.6	+ 6.5	949	46.7	797	51.7	+ 5.0
Separated or divorced	53	62.9	80	78.8	+15.9	81	72.3	81	81.5	+ 9.2
Widowed	14	(2/)	11	(2/)	(2/)	28	65.7	29	67.1	+ 1.4
Never married	49	81.5	45	87.1	+ 5.6	28	89.1	44	80.6	- 8.5
Blacks	367	70.4	338	62.3	- 8.1	405	70.0	367	64.0	- 6.0
Married, spouse present	243	66.0	185	62.2	- 3.8	267	66.4	234	63.4	- 3.0
Separated or divorced	86	84.8	104	63.0	-21.8	79	87.1	81	68.9	-18.2
Widowed	22	(2/)	14	(2/)	(2/)	31	49.9	39	61.5	+11.6
Never married	16	(2/)	35	56.9	(2/)	28	80.4	13	(2/)	(2/)

1/Sample limited to women interviewed in all survey years.
2/Data not shown where sample size is less than 25 cases.

the white rate was 16 points above the black rate. Similar patterns were evidenced for the 40 to 44 year old age group.

After noting the above, it is also important to indicate that the national longitudinal survey data for both the older and younger women's cohorts differs systematically in several important ways from comparable CPS or decennial census data. In general, NLS respondents are more likely to report marginal labor force attachments.[8] This often leads to systematically higher labor force rates in the NLS sample for black respondents as well as for categories of women where large numbers are employed part time or with a job and not at work. Women who have recently had a child often fall in this last category.[9] Table 4 provides CPS and NLS labor force participation rates by race for 35 to 44 year old women in 1967 and 1972. It is evident that both from the perspective of cross-sectional levels of participation as well as longitudinal trends in levels of participation that major interpretive differences can result, depending on the data set one uses. While both data sets suggest a convergence between black and white rates over the five year period, the NLS convergence is much

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[8] See Parnes, H. et al. Career Thresholds vol. 1, Center for Human Resource Research, The Ohio State University, February 1969, Appendix E for detailed comparison of the data from the NLS and from the CPS.

[9] See "Work and Motherhood: The Dynamics of Labor Force Participation Surrounding the First Brith" by Frank L. Mott and David Shapiro in Years for Decision vol. 4. Center for Human Resource Research, The Ohio State University, November, 1977.

Table 4. LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES IN 1967 AND 1972 FOR NLS AND CPS WOMEN AGE 35 TO 44, BY RACE

Race	NLS		CPS	
	1967	1972	1967	1972
Whites	49.4	55.1	46.4	56.7
Blacks	68.5	61.9	60.8	60.7
Difference	+19.1	+ 6.8	+14.4	+10.0

NOTE: The NLS data in this table are for all respondents interviewed in either 1967 or 1972. CPS data are annual averages and NLS data reflect interviews carried out approximately during the period of April through June. Examination of monthly CPS data suggests no seasonal bias for the NLS interview months, as the second quarter labor force participation rates are virtually identical to the annual average rates for both black and white, 35 to 44 year old women.

SOURCE: U.S. Dept. of Labor, Manpower Admin. Manpower Report of the President - March 1973. Washington, D.C.: U.S.G.P.O. Table No. A-4, pp. 131-32.

more pronounced. While all questions regarding which data set is more "accurate" cannot be resolved, it is nonetheless important for researchers to be aware of these differences since they can have significant implications for many cross-sectional and longitudinal substantive labor force analyses.

Whereas levels of labor force participation show a racial convergence, a more careful examination of the intensity of work participation suggests other trends. As noted in Table 5, for both white and black women, there is a trend towards more full time employment for those who are employed. This movement towards more full time employment has, for white women, both an aging as well as a secular component: within the women's cohort, older white women, who or average have older children, are more likely to be employed full time. Also, white women in a specific five year age group were more likely to be working full time in 1972 than in 1967. Thus, whether gauged from the perspective of labor force participation levels or hours worked, mature white women evidence increasing levels of work commitment over the half decade.

For black women, there is no pattern of increasing full time employment associated with aging per se. However, there is some evidence of a secular increase in full time participation for both 35 to 39 and 40 to 44 year old women.

As was the case with black and white labor force participation levels, major racial variations in work intensity appear when the data are decomposed along marital dimensions. While black women

Table 5. PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYED WOMEN WORKING 35 OR MORE HOURS PER WEEK IN 1967 AND 1972, BY MARITAL STATUS, RACE AND AGE IN 1967[1/]

Race and age in 1967	1967						1972					
	Number of respondents	Total marital status	Number of respondents	Married, spouse present	Number of respondents	Other marital status	Number of respondents	Total marital status	Number of respondents	Married, spouse present	Number of respondents	Other marital status
Whites	1,265	57.8	1,009	52.8	256	77.2	1,564	66.5	1,239	62.2	325	82.9
30-34	381	52.7	295	45.0	86	78.5	481	62.8	381	56.7	100	86.3
35-39	394	55.0	320	51.2	74	71.8	505	68.0	393	64.1	112	81.5
40-44	490	64.1	394	60.0	96	80.1	578	68.3	465	65.1	113	81.5
Blacks	635	61.8	393	59.3	242	65.9	631	68.1	373	71.4	258	63.0
30-34	172	64.2	98	64.9	74	63.3	192	66.9	105	73.7	87	57.3
35-39	213	64.3	138	61.6	75	69.1	214	69.7	138	71.6	76	66.4
40-44	250	57.7	157	53.8	93	65.1	225	67.7	130	69.3	95	65.2

1/Sample limited to women interviewed in all survey years.

living with their husbands are generally more likely to be employed full time than their white counterparts, a reverse pattern exists for women who do not have a husband present (including the separated, divorced and widowed as well as never married). Thus, black women without husbands present are not only less likely to be in the labor force but, in addition, are much less likely to be employed full time, if they are working.

The increasing pattern of work attachment for the white women in the sample is at least partly a reflection of the aging of their children. As noted earlier, the overall proportion of the white cohort which had a preschool child declined from 37 to 14 percent reflecting both their aging as well as historic differences in childbearing patterns. Focusing more narrowly on white women who were 35 to 44 years of age in 1967 and 1972, it may be noted that their labor force participation rate increased from 48 to 55 percent over the five year period with about two of the seven point increase reflecting the lower proportions with preschool age children (see Table 6).[10] In contrast, black women at those ages, had their overall labor force participation rate decline by seven points even though they also evidenced significant declines in fertility. That all of the above patterns are widespread may be evidenced by the fact that

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[10]This statistic was arrived at by standardizing the 1967 distribution of 35 to 44 year old women against the child status of their counterparts in 1972.

Table 6. LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES AND PERCENTAGE WITH PRESCHOOL CHILDREN FOR WOMEN AGE 35 TO 44 YEARS OF AGE IN 1967 AND 1972, BY RACE[1/]

Race	Percent with preschool child		Labor force participation rate					
			1967			1972		
	1967	1972	Total	With preschool child	Without preschool child	Total	With preschool child	Without preschool child
Whites	27.3 (N = 2,037)	20.0 (N = 1,919)	48.4 (N = 2,037)	26.3 (N = 546)	56.7 (N = 1,491)	54.8 (N = 1,919)	34.9 (N = 386)	59.8 (N = 1,533)
Blacks	30.5 (N = 772)	22.5 (N = 705)	70.2 (N = 772)	55.9 (N = 252)	76.2 (N = 520)	63.2 (N = 705)	47.4 (N = 173)	67.9 (N = 532)

1/Sample limited to women interviewed in all survey years.

white participation rates rose and black participation rates fell both for women with and without preschool children.

As a final dimension of labor force commitment, Table 7 presents the distribution of weeks worked during 1966 and 1971 for women who were employed at any time during that year.[11] In both 1966 and 1971 the vast majority of women workers at these ages are employed for most of the year. Around half are year round employees and over three quarters of the white workers and about 80 percent of black workers were employed over 26 weeks. There are no apparent major trends along this dimension over the 1966 to 1971 period.

Income, Earnings and Labor Force Participation

The 1966 to 1971 period was one of rising real income levels for the mature women's cohort. Overall, real white family income rose 16 percent and black income about 22 percent over the half decade (Table 8). This trend reflects a number of factors. First, most of the women are in families where the husbands are at ages where they are approaching their peak earning power. This is suggested by the general upward slope for most of the five year income curves in Chart I. However, of equal importance is the fact that real family income for women at the same ages in 1967 and 1972 rose for both black and white 35 to 39 and 40 to 44 year old women. This increase was particularly pronounced for the white women. The income matrix in Table 9 further

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[11] The 1966 statistic was for weeks worked in past year whereas the 1971 statistic was for weeks worked since last survey date.

Table 7. NUMBER OF WEEKS WORKED, BY RACE, FOR 1966 AND 1971[1/]

Race	Number of respondents	Percentage distribution				Median number of weeks	Mean number of weeks
		Total	26 weeks or less	27 to 48 weeks	49 weeks or more		
Whites							
1966	1,388	100.0	23.5	22.7	53.8	50.1	39.7
1971	1,227	100.0	15.2	40.8	44.0	46.6	40.8
Blacks							
1966	768	100.0	21.5	23.0	55.4	50.9	40.2
1971	527	100.0	11.8	35.2	53.2	48.8	42.7

1/Sample limited to women interviewed in all survey years and who reported any income from wages, salary, commissions or tips from all jobs before deductions.

Table 8. MEAN FAMILY INCOME BY RACE AND YEAR[1/]

Year	Whites			Blacks			Ratio of white to black income
	Number of respondents	Mean	Mean adjusted to 1967 dollars	Number of respondents	Mean	Mean adjusted to 1967 dollars	
1966	2,381	$ 9,365	$ 9,647	945	$5,481	$5,645	1.71
1968	2,055	10,958	10,520	833	7,049	6,767	1.55
1970	2,414	12,764	10,977	917	7,807	6,714	1.63
1971	1,955	13,648	11,191	799	8,391	6,881	1.63

1/Sample limited to women interviewed in all survey years.

Chart 1. MEAN FAMILY INCOME, 1966 THROUGH 1971, BY AGE AND RACE IN 1967 (IN 1967 DOLLARS)

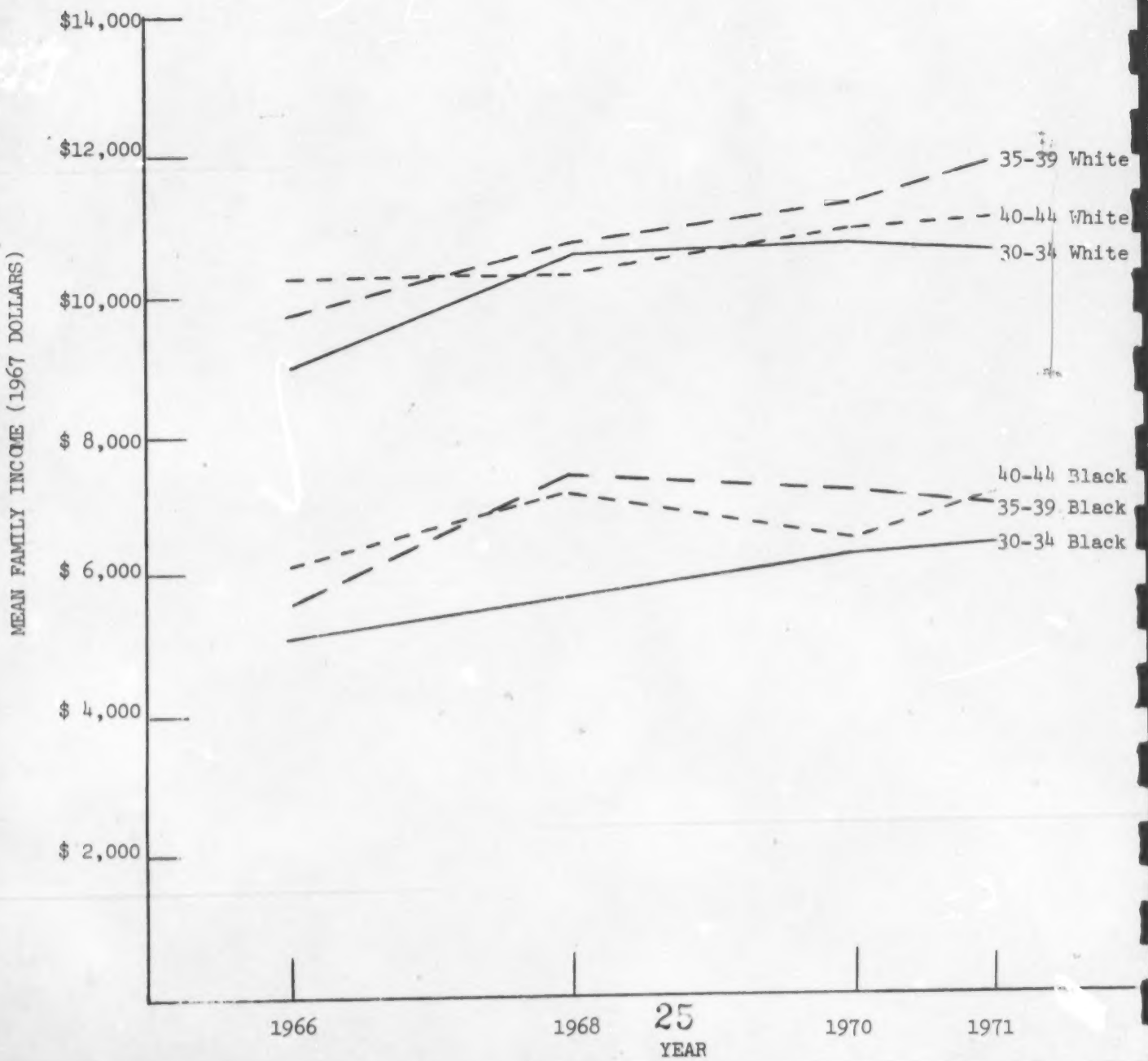

Table 9. TOTAL FAMILY INCOME 1971 BY TOTAL FAMILY INCOME 1966 AND RACE1/

Total family income 1966 and race	Number of respondents	Total family income 1971 (percentage distribution)						Vertical percentage distribution
		Total	Less than $3,000	$3,000 - 4,999	$5,000 - 7,499	$7,500 - 9,999	$10,000 or more	
Whites	1,614	100.0	5.5	8.3	14.8	18.3	52.7	100.0
Less than $3,000	100	100.0	34.0	25.7	15.2	10.2	14.9	5.6
$3,000 - 4,999	164	100.0	16.9	30.3	26.2	11.7	14.9	9.2
$5,000 - 7,499	359	100.0	5.7	8.8	29.5	30.3	25.8	21.9
$7,500 - 9,999	381	100.0	1.1	4.9	12.7	26.9	54.4	23.9
$10,000 or more	610	100.0	2.3	2.5	5.1	9.1	80.9	39.3
Blacks	693	100.0	21.6	23.6	22.9	13.6	18.3	100.0
Less than $3,000	216	100.0	46.3	31.3	10.7	8.3	3.4	28.1
$3,000 - 4,999	195	100.0	17.5	37.3	29.7	8.6	6.9	27.0
$5,000 - 7,499	139	100.0	10.8	15.5	31.4	28.0	14.3	21.4
$7,500 - 9,999	72	100.0	6.4	9.6	31.1	19.7	33.2	11.1
$10,000 or more	71	100.0	6.6	3.1	13.5	6.3	70.4	12.4

1/Sample limited to women interviewed in all survey years. All income is adjusted to 1967 dollars.

illustrates the asymmetry in family income transitions between 1966 and 1971. For all 1966 income categories, except the highest, there was more movement upward in adjusted income levels by 1971 than movement downward. This pattern was particularly pronounced for white respondents.[12]

Charts 2 and 3 explore one particular dimension of this income picture--the transition from poverty, utilizing the official CPS poverty definitions for 1966 and 1971. The major racial variations in the proportion of respondents living below the poverty line as well as the significant decline in those proportions between 1966 and 1971 may be noted in Chart 2. The overall white proportion below the poverty line declined from about 9 to less than 6 percent during the period; the black proportions declined from 42 to 33 percent.[13] Thus, even though the black proportions declined by nine points over the period, the average black woman in 1971 still was more than six times as likely to be living in poverty than her white counterpart.

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[12]This pattern was also generally apparent for the separate five year age group with upward income movements most pronounced for the women who were 30 to 34 in 1967. Also, for black women, the upward asymmetry is only evident for respondents with family income below $7,500.

[13]The official poverty definition is based on the relationship between the family's income level, the number of family members and whether or not they are living in an urban or rural area in the relevant year. See the following U.S. Bureau of the Census publications; all in the Current Population Report series, "The Extent of Poverty in the United States 1959 to 1966" P-60 No. 54, "Revision in Poverty Statistics 1959 to 1968," P-23 No. 28 and "Characteristics in the Low Income Population 1971" P-60 No. 86.

Chart 2. CUMULATIVE PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILY INCOME IN RELATION TO POVERTY LEVEL, 1966 AND 1971, BY RACE

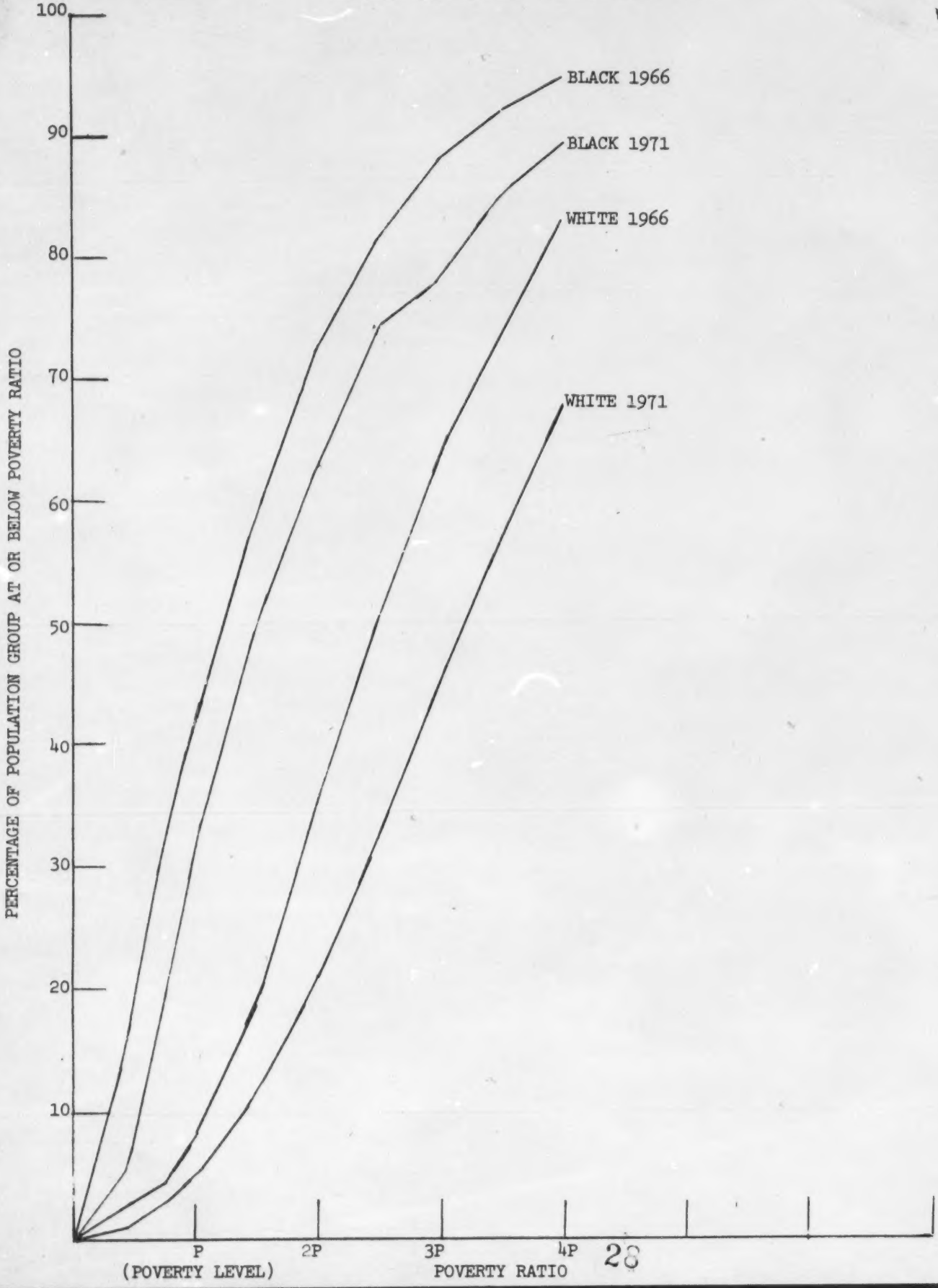

Chart 3. DISTRIBUTION OF 1966 POVERTY GROUP IN 1971, BY RACE

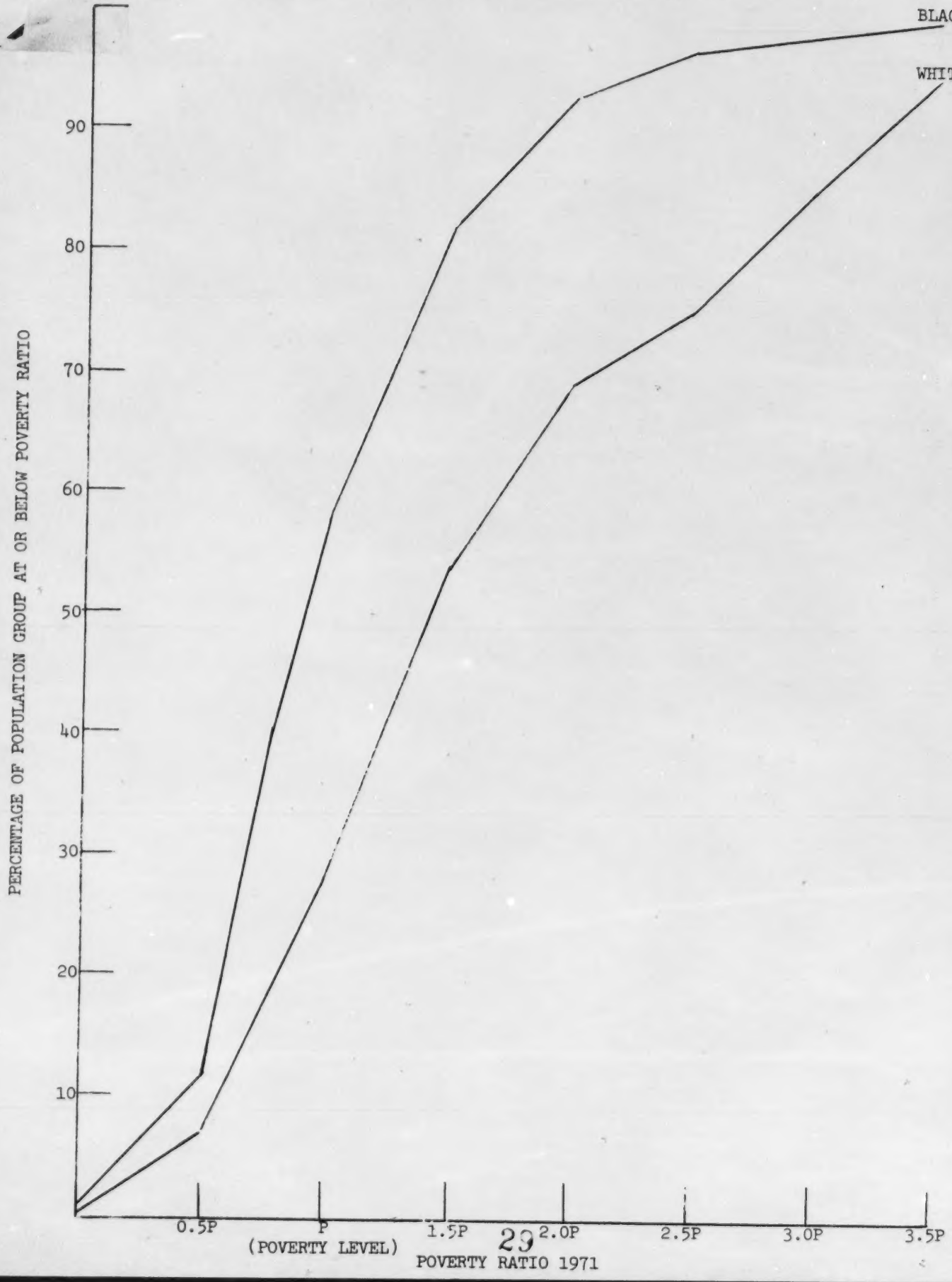

Chart 3 highlights the stability of poverty "status" for this age group of women. Of all the white women living in poverty in 1966, while 70 percent were above the poverty line in 1971, only 45 percent were above the 1.5 times the poverty level and 30 percent were in a family with an income more than twice the poverty level. Black poor families, are even less successful in improving their status as almost 60 percent of the black women in poverty in 1966 were still in poverty in 1971. Thus, it is clear that poverty represents much more of a permanent status for the black women in the NLS sample.

Shifting from the overall family income levels to the respondents' contribution to that income, Table 10 indicates the average respondent earnings in 1966 and 1971 for all respondents as well as for respondents who worked at some time during the year. Overall, black and white women increased their real earnings about 26 and 29 percent, respectively, over the five year period. However, black working women increased their real annual earnings almost 40 percent over the period compared with only 16 percent for white working women. As a result, the absolute annual earnings advantage of white working women declined from 724 dollars to 283 dollars. It is of some interest to note that this earnings differential narrowed even though there was no narrowing in the occupational differences (as measured here) between black and white employed women. In both 1967 and 1972, about two thirds of employed white women held white collar jobs as compared with 27 percent of black employed women in 1967 and 32 percent in 1972. Black women in this age cohort continue to be primarily employed in service and

Table 10. RESPONDENT MEAN ANNUAL EARNINGS (IN 1967 DOLLARS) IN 1966 AND 1971 BY RACE AND AGE IN 1967 1/

Race and age in 1967	All respondents					Respondents with earnings in year				
	Number of respondents	1966	Number of respondents	1971	Percentage change	Number of respondents	1966	Number of respondents	1971	Percentage change
Whites	2,963	$1,522	2,949	$1,970	+29.4	1,412	$3,192	1,568	$3,694	+15.7
30-34	955	1,348	955	1,843	+36.7	433	2,989	513	3,423	+14.5
35-39	942	1,494	935	1,981	+32.6	447	3,145	497	3,711	+18.0
40-44	1,066	1,704	1,059	2,072	+21.6	532	3,394	558	3,925	+15.6
Blacks	1,097	1.790	1,080	2,257	+26.1	779	2,468	693	3,411	+38.2
30-34	335	1,619	330	2,094	+29.3	236	2,310	213	3,170	+37.2
35-39	361	1,834	356	2,275	+24.0	255	2,493	233	3,380	+35.6
40-44	401	1,900	394	2,383	+25.4	288	2,580	247	3,657	+41.7

1/Sample limited to women interviewwd in all survey years..

blue collar jobs. In addition, it may be recalled that there were no overall significant differences between white and black women either in the average number of weeks worked in 1966 or 1971 or in the average number of hours worked per week.

A further breakdown of the respondents' earnings by weeks worked in the past year indicates that a substantial proportion of the improvement in the black respondents' earnings position reflected higher black earnings for year-round workers. In 1966, white women working 52 weeks during the year earned fully 50 percent more than their black counterparts--$4458 (in 1967 dollars) compared with $2954. By 1971, white full-year workers had increased their mean annual earnings marginally to $4638 while the same black women now earned $4066. Thus, while differences still remained, the black women had made substantial inroads towards attaining earnings parity.

The same could not, however, be said for her male counterpart. The average white husband (to the female respondent) increased his annual earnings (in 1967 dollars) from $7279 in 1966 to $7970 in 1971; while the average black husband went from $4523 to $5095. Thus, in both years, the average white husband earned approximately 60 percent more than his black counterpart.

Given the fact that black women earn only slightly less than white women and that black men have earnings well below white women, it should not be surprising that the average black woman makes a much more substantial contribution to her family's income. Focusing more narrowly on husband-wife families in Table 11, it may be noted that

Table 11. WIVES CONTRIBUTION TO FAMILY INCOME[1] IN 1966 AND 1971 BY RACE FOR MARRIED WOMEN WITH SPOUSE PRESENT[2]

Race	1966			1971		
	Mean family income	Mean respondent earnings	Respondent contribution (percent)	Mean family income	Mean respondent earnings	Respondent contribution (percent)
Whites	$10,205 (N = 2,070)	$1,318 (N = 2,071)	12.9	$12,191 (N = 1,607)	$1,866 (N = 1,608)	15.3
Blacks	$ 6,968 (N = 601)	$1,746 (N = 601)	25.1	$ 8,538 (N = 452)	$2,295 (N = 454)	26.9

1/All income is in 1967 dollars.
2/Sample limited to respondents interviewed in all survey years.

the average black wife contributes about one-fourth of her family's income compared with substantially smaller proportions for the average white woman.[14]

Attitudes Toward Home and Work

Much of the labor force data presented are consistent with the notion that within the mature women's cohort, there are some indications of a shift towards increasing work activity and concommitant increases in real earnings. It is thus of some interest to examine whether or not the behavior patterns noted above are consistent with attitudes toward work and family roles expressed by these women. In the 1967 and 1972 interviews, the women were asked several questions concerning their feelings about home and work. Table 12 suggests how these ideas changed during the five year period. For both the items in Table 12, there was a definite shift toward more positive ideas about market work for both black and white 35 to 39 and 40 to 44 year olds, the age groups common to the two interview years. Only black women 35 to 39 years of age showed no shift towards more positive work values.[15]

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[14]These proportions show no variation by age of respondent.

[15]A similar trend may be noted for women 20 to 24 in 1968 and 1972 for the young woman's cohort in Table 12a. There are no clear age trends on these attitude items between the younger and mature women's cohort. On the other hand, there has been little change between 1967 and 1972 in the percentages of husbands with a favorable attitude toward his wife's working. For both blacks and whites in 1967 and 1972, the percentage giving a favorable response is about 56. See Parnes et al. Dual Careers, vol. 4, December, 1975, pp. 13-15.

Table 12. PERCENTAGE AGREEING WITH SPECIFIED WORK ROLE ATTITUDES IN 1967 AND 1972, BY RACE AND AGE OLDER WOMEN'S COHORT[1/]

Race and age	1967			1972		
	Number of respondents	Okay to work if husband agrees	Okay to work even if husband disagrees	Number of respondents	Okay to work if husband agrees	Okay to work even if husband disagrees
Whites	2,945	74.7	12.6	2,945	83.1	20.5
30-34	947	77.5	13.3	(2/)	(2/)	(2/)
35-39	931	76.8	13.3	947	86.9	22.6
40-44	1,067	70.2	11.3	931	84.2	19.7
45-49	(2/)	(2/)	(2/)	1,067	78.6	19.2
Blacks	1,079	82.7	23.8	1,079	86.2	29.1
30-34	328	84.9	23.2	(2/)	(2/)	(2/)
35-39	360	88.0	25.4	328	87.9	34.9
40-44	391	76.0	22.9	360	86.1	28.6
45-49	(2/)	(2/)	(2/)	391	85.3	24.4

1/Sample limited to women interviewed in all survey years.
2/Data not available.

Without attempting to clarify directions of causation between work attitudes and work behavior, it is nonetheless of interest to note that women attached to the labor force in both 1967 and 1972 were generally much more likely to shift towards more positive attitudes. A comparison of women who were working in 1967 and 1972 with those who were not working at either point in time indicated in particular that the percentage of women who felt it was "all right" to work even if their husband disagreed increased sharply for both black and white women at all ages (see Table 13). In addition, the results for both attitude items, for the employed and not employed, are generally consistent with the notion that more positive attitudes toward work may be found among the younger women.

The 1967-1972 comparison for the above attitude items in Tables 12 and 12a indicate a definite secular shift towards more positive work attitudes over the half decade. Table 14 presents the results of a wider series of work role items which have also been asked of both the younger and older women's cohorts, but to date for only one point in time. These cross-sectional results do provide some further clarification regarding variations in attitudes towards work roles in 1972 for two generations of women covering a 30 year span from age 18 to age 49. Indeed, by comparing work role attitudes of 18 to 23 and 45 to 49 year old women one is essentially comparing the attitudes of two successive generations of American women. Most of the attitude items suggest that younger women have more positive attitudes regarding their ability to combine the home and market work roles. Most of the items with the greatest age discrepancy are non-economically based. In particular, young women are much less

Table 12a. PERCENTAGE AGREEING WITH SPECIFIED WORK ROLE ATTITUDES IN 1968 AND 1972, BY RACE AND AGE IN 1968: YOUNG WOMEN'S COHORT[1/]

Race and age in 1968	1968			1972		
	Number of respondents	Okay to work if husband agrees	Okay to work even if husband disagrees	Number of respondents	Okay to work if husband agrees	Okay to work even if husband disagrees
Whites	3,173	66.7	12.4	3,157	82.3	25.0
14-19	1,829	67.7	12.4	1,819	80.8	24.4
20-24	1,344	65.1	12.4	1,338	84.5	26.0
Blacks	1,254	82.3	19.0	1,247	92.3	29.4
14-19	818	83.1	20.0	815	92.1	29.3
20-24	436	80.9	17.5	432	92.6	29.6

1/Sample limited to women interviewed in 1968 and 1972.

Table 13. PERCENTAGE AGREEING WITH SPECIFIED WORK ROLE ATTITUDES IN 1972 BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS IN 1967 (1968)[1] AND 1972, RACE AND AGE IN 1972[2]

Age in 1972	Okay to work if husband agrees				Okay to work even if husband disagrees			
	Number of respondents	Employed 1967 (1968) and 1972	Number of respondents	Not employed 1967 (1968) and 1972	Number of respondents	Employed 1967 (1968) and 1972	Number of respondents	Not employed 1967 (1968) and 1972
Whites								
18-23	399	82.7	590	80.0	398	26.0	590	22.6
24-28	444	82.1	380	83.9	444	28.3	381	20.2
35-39	309	89.4	366	82.4	310	29.0	366	16.7
40-44	337	86.5	327	83.2	336	27.5	327	12.5
45-49	426	80.7	386	75.6	426	20.7	386	17.2
Blacks								
18-23	118	94.3	375	92.4	118	40.4	375	26.5
24-28	151	96.0	131	93.6	151	28.3	131	30.2
35-39	138	85.5	85	88.8	138	38.2	84	25.2
40-44	182	93.4	92	71.1	182	35.0	92	16.7
45-49	200	81.8	91	84.2	200	28.3	91	12.9

1/For women age 18 to 28, the appropriate survey year is 1968. For women age 35 to 49, the appropriate survey year is 1967.

2/For women age 18 to 28, the sample is limited to women interviewed in 1968 and 1972. For women age 35 to 49, the sample is limited to women interviewed all survey years.

Table 14. PERCENTAGE AGREEING WITH SPECIFIED WORK OR FAMILY ROLE ATTITUDES IN 1972, BY RACE AND AGE[1/]

Race and age	Number of respondents	Modern conveniences permit a wife to work without neglecting family	Woman's place is in the home	Job provides wife with interesting outside contacts	Wife who carries out her full family responsibilities doesn't have time for outside employment	Working wife feels more useful than one who does not work	The employment of wives leads to more juvenile delinquency	Working wives help to raise the general standard of living	Working wives lose interest in their homes and families	Employment of both parents is necessary to keep up with the high cost of living
Whites										
18-23	1,819	69.3	33.5	92.3	27.4	46.9	24.8	81.5	11.5	47.3
24-28	1,339	62.1	40.3	89.2	31.2	41.3	29.4	80.4	14.1	48.8
35-39	952	59.5	42.8	88.5	37.8	45.2	40.7	79.9	16.5	57.2
40-44	933	61.9	44.8	88.7	36.6	50.8	42.7	83.8	19.2	60.8
45-49	1,070	62.6	45.9	87.5	41.5	49.5	51.1	82.1	23.2	65.0
Blacks										
18-23	815	80.8	28.5	86.2	27.4	61.4	20.0	88.9	8.2	75.9
24-28	431	76.9	35.5	82.1	33.5	61.8	23.3	88.1	9.3	81.7
35-39	328	76.0	46.2	80.4	45.3	59.1	41.9	89.2	16.3	84.9
40-44	360	75.4	49.9	78.7	47.2	67.1	40.8	85.7	18.8	81.7
45-49	390	77.4	48.7	76.9	51.4	68.9	49.1	87.5	24.1	83.7

1/For women age 18 to 28, sample is limited to those interviewed in 1968 and 1972. For women age 35 to 49, the sample is limited to those interviewed all survey years.

likely to believe that (1) employment leads to juvenile delinquency; (2) wives with family responsibility don't have time for outside employment; (3) a woman's place is in the home; and (4) working wives lose interest in their family. The item most closely associated with general economic circumstances (working wives help raise the general standard of living) shows no variation by age as both younger and older women show strong agreement with the statement.

However, older white women were significantly more likely to feel that the employment of both parents is necessary to keep up with the high cost of living. This undoubtedly reflects a greater awareness of economic realities. This item and possibly the one stating that "working wives feel more useful" are the only two of the nine where the older women have attitudes more positively correlated with likely work activity than the younger women.

If all of the above attitude variations do reflect secular variations in work attitudes, it is expected that the younger women will have higher levels of work activity than their older counterparts in the years ahead. To the extent that these attitude shifts only reflect the aging process, the above would not necessarily be true. Subsequent survey rounds which include repetitions of these attitude items will help to clarify these tentative predictions.

While many of the attitude items in Table 14 show similar racial patterns, there are indeed several important differences in the level of the responses. On a number of items the black responses are more positive. In particular, as might be expected, black women feel much more strongly that the employment of both parents is necessary to keep

up with the high cost of living. In addition, black women are much more likely to feel that a working wife feels more useful than one who does not work.

It is of some interest to note that much of the racial discrepancy for these attitudinal items reflects differences between black and white women who are not working. As may be noted in Table 14a, black and white employed women are both quite likely to feel that "employment of both parents in necessary" and "working wives feel more useful" (although, even here black responses are somewhat more positive). However, when one examines the responses of the not employed women, almost 80 percent of black women feel "employment of both parents in necessary" compared with less than half of the white women. Also, about 55 percent of the black not employed feel "working wives feel more useful" compared with about 35 percent for white women who are not working.

These results are certainly consistent with the idea that there is a substantial proportion of the nonworking female black population which sees the need for meaningful remunerative employment but, for whatever the reasons, is currently unable to meet that need.

Further evidence of the complex manner in which home and work roles may be associated both with secular change and the aging process per se may be noted in Table 15. This table decribes the extent to which married husband present women between the ages of 21 and 51 share various home activities with others. These data, only available from the 1974 survey of mature women and the 1975 survey of young women are presented both for all women in the sample as well as for women who were employed on that survey date.

Table 14a. PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN 35 TO 49 YEARS OF AGE AGREEING WITH SPECIFIED WORK OR FAMILY ROLE ATTITUDES IN 1972 BY RACE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

	Employed		Not employed		Black - white differential	
	White	Black	White	Black	Employed	Not employed
Modern conveniences permit work without neglecting family	69.0 (1619)	79.5 (665)	52.4 (1386)	70.7 (445)	+10.5	+18.3
Woman's place is in home	34.3	41.9	56.7	59.4	+ 7.6	+ 2.7
Job provides wife with interesting outside contacts	92.7	82.1	82.9	72.4	-10.6	-10.5
Wife who carries out her full family responsibilities doesn't have time for outside employment	26.9	41.6	52.8	59.4	+14.7	+ 6.6
Working wife feels more useful than one who does not work	60.3	70.1	34.7	56.7	+ 9.8	+22.0
The employment of wives leads to more juvenile delinquency	35.6	38.3	56.3	53.9	+ 2.7	- 2.4
Working wives help to raise the general standard of living	88.3	90.6	74.5	81.9	+ 2.3	+ 7.4
Working wives lose interest in their homes and families	12.8	13.8	28.1	30.2	+ 1.0	+ 2.1
Employment of both parents is necessary to keep up with the high cost of living	74.4	86.1	45.5	78.5	+11.7	+33.0

Table 15. PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS WITH SOLE RESPONSIBILITY FOR SELECTED HOUSEHOLD TASKS IN 1974 (1975)[1] BY RACE AND AGE[2]

Race and age	All respondents							
	Number of respondents	Grocery shopping	Child[3] care	Cooking	Cleaning dishes	Cleaning house	Washing clothes	Yard and home maintenance
Whites								
21-26	1,107	56.5	39.6	74.1	65.7	65.8	80.5	9.9
27-31	1,012	67.8	41.4	76.7	65.7	67.8	84.3	11.0
37-41	816	74.4	44.3	72.3	45.0	52.1	77.4	7.3
42-46	795	71.5	35.7	75.8	54.7	59.3	81.5	9.0
47-51	881	62.2	20.7	78.0	59.2	63.8	81.2	9.6
Blacks								
21-26	287	45.8	35.5	73.9	63.1	58.2	70.7	17.0
27-31	224	61.8	46.1	71.7	55.9	65.2	82.1	12.1
37-41	182	53.9	37.2	56.3	36.5	36.5	56.7	6.5
42-46	227	60.5	30.6	68.6	34.8	41.7	57.1	7.6
47-51	236	60.9	17.5	72.7	52.1	60.0	68.4	9.4
	Employed respondents							
Whites								
21-26	618	51.6	20.1	66.6	55.7	55.0	75.2	6.0
27-31	462	64.5	24.2	65.8	54.0	53.9	74.2	8.2
37-41	432	69.0	30.8	63.9	38.7	43.7	69.6	5.2
42-46	436	70.6	27.4	67.3	49.1	52.2	77.1	6.2
47-51	442	58.6	12.2	69.6	53.0	58.2	76.1	8.9
Blacks								
21-26	155	45.1	24.0	69.1	54.5	45.4	64.0	11.2
27-31	132	65.5	35.4	64.2	52.7	59.7	78.7	7.8
37-41	113	55.8	31.8	53.5	31.3	28.9	54.4	4.3
42-46	140	64.6	21.6	64.5	27.9	35.0	51.4	6.5
47-51	139	62.8	9.5	72.1	51.1	60.9	70.8	5.5

1/For women age 21 to 31, the appropriate survey year is 1975. For women age 37 to 51, the appropriate survey year is 1974. Questions asked only of women who were married with spouse present.

2/For women age 21 to 31, the sample is limited to those interviewed in 1968 and 1975. For women age 37 to 51, the sample is limited to those interviewed all survey years.

3/Includes family units which do not have children in the home.

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Generally speaking, cooking, washing dishes, cleaning house and washing clothes are household tasks for which the wife appears to be most likely to have sole responsibility during the early years of marriage. After the age of thirty, there is some reduction in the proportion of women having sole responsibility for these tasks, but then increases in sole responsibility are evidenced once again as the married woman approaches the post child-raising period. It may well be that the pattern of heavier responsibility by the wife in the early marriage years is simply a reflection of the fact that she is more likely to be in the home a greater proportion of the time because she has young children. As the children age and her probability of employment increases, the necessity for others to share home responsibilities with her increases. At the upper end of the age spectrum we may be witnessing a secular phenomenon as women of that generation may always have been more likely to assume sole responsibility for household tasks. The major exception to this pattern was child care responsibilities which declined with increasing age reflecting the reduced need for this kind of assistance among the older women. Also, black women were usually more likely to share family responsibilities than white women. The same age and racial patterns were evidenced for working women in the sample.

In general, the women in the labor force shared family responsibilities to a greater extent than nonworkers.[16] However, while sole responsibility

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[16]Harriet Presser's findings are similar in that she finds black husbands share more household tasks than white husbands. Husbands of

for various household tasks was lower for the employed, the differences were often somewhat marginal. In most instances, a working woman still maintained sole responsibility for most home tasks. This was true for both older and younger women and for both races.

Summary and Conclusions

The data presented in this paper suggest a number of trends which in some instances are consistent with each other and in other instances somewhat divergent. For the most part, behavioral and attitudinal trends exhibited by white women were consistent. Over the five year 1967 to 1972 period, the level of labor force participation and the likelihood of being employed full time increased for white women. While part of this trend reflected aging per se and its concommitant effect on child-raising, a major portion of the trend was secular in nature as women with specific demographic characteristics increased their work attachment. Women within all marital status categories showed significant increases in participation levels. This partly reflected the lower proportion of women at a given age and in a given marital status category who had preschool children in 1972 compared with 1967. Consistent with this increase in participation levels and in average hours worked per week, mean real earnings for white women

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women who were in the labor force share more household tasks than those whose wives were not in the labor force. See Harriet Presser, "Female Employment and the Division of Labor Within the Home: A Longitudinal Perspective." Paper presented at the Annual Meetings of the Population Association, St. Louis, Missouri, 1977.

increased over the period. Part of the increase in real family for white families in this age range between 1967 and 1972 reflected these increased real earnings of white wives. However, white wives' earnings as a percent of family income only increased marginally from about 13 to 15 percent during the five years under investigation. Not surprisingly, there were parallel secular shifts toward more positive attitudes regarding white wives working during the half decade.

The black patterns were not as internally consistent. On an age specific basis, black labor force participation rates declined significantly between 1967 and 1972 even though they, as with the white women, evidenced major secular declines in the proportion with preschool age children. The most dramatic declines in participation were witnessed by those women who were separated or divorced. These women not only showed a sharp decline in probability of participation but also were less likely to work full time in 1972, if they did work.

However, the black working woman made impressive gains in real earnings over the half decade. The most significant gains were evidenced by black women working full time year round. Much of the growth in real black family income between 1966 and 1971 reflected this improvement by black working wives who contribute, on the average, about 25 percent of their families' income.

As with the white women, black women showed overall shifts toward more positive work attitudes, but not to the extent that white women did, since black women in 1967 had already evidenced higher levels of commitment to the joint work-family role.

In summary, while white women generally increased their participation levels over the half decade, black women decreased theirs. Since black labor force participation levels were higher than white levels (on an age and marital status specific basis) at the beginning of the five year period, the net result was a major convergence in rates between the races over the period. This convergence was evidenced in its most extreme form for women who were separated or divorced. In 1967, black women in this category had labor force rates well above their white counterparts. By 1972 the white rates were significantly higher.

A comparison of CPS labor force levels with NLS levels indicate a much greater convergence with our data set. The explanation for this convergence cannot be found in this limited overview, but may be partly related to the differential ability of black and white women at these ages to command market wages significantly above the income levels which they can accrue from various federal income transfer programs.[17]

Focusing more specifically on those women who are employed, black employed women greatly improved their earnings position vis a vis their white employed counterparts between 1966 and 1971. The absolute

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[17]Ross and Sawhill in their book, Time of Transition, point out that between 1960 and 1970, welfare benefits have been rising relative to market earnings. Between 1960 and 1970, the average payment per recipient in the AFDC program increased 75 percent while the mean earnings of wage and salaried workers increased by 48 percent. See Ross, Heather and Sawhill, Isabel, Time of Transition, Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute, 1975, pp. 98-101.

annual earnings advantage of white working women declined from over 700 to under 300 dollars. This relative improvement was most dramatic among women who were employed year-round full time. This positive finding must, however, be tempered by one caveat which may be related to the earlier cited declines in black labor market participation during the period. To the extent that the decline in black labor force rates represented a "selecting out" process whereby the black women with the least earnings potential were most likely to leave the labor force, the major increase in real earnings for nonleavers becomes less surprising.

It was noted that whereas work attitudes of white working women were much more positive than the attitudes of their nonworking counterparts, the same was not as universally true for the black women; black women not at work felt as strongly that work was necessary on two key attitude items as did working black women. All of the above suggest (admittedly somewhat impressionistically) that there may well be a large latent pool of black women available and desiring to work if the proper conditions for employment existed and if, at least in some instances, appropriate guidance, skill training and other socioeconomic assistance were made available. The enormous discrepancy among black women between actual patterns of work participation and apparent positive feelings regarding the economic and psychological need for work are, to say the least, disquieting.

The Center for Human Resource Research

The Center for Human Resource Research is a policy-oriented research unit based in the College of Administrative Science of The Ohio State University. Established in 1965, the Center is concerned with a wide range of contemporary problems associated with human resource development, conservation and utilization. The personnel include approximately twenty senior staff members drawn from the disciplines of economics, education, health sciences, industrial relations, management science, psychology, public administration, social work and sociology. This multidisciplinary team is supported by approximately 50 graduate research associates, full-time research assistants, computer programmers and other personnel.

The Center has acquired pre-eminence in the fields of labor market research and manpower planning. The National Longitudinal Surveys of Labor Force Behavior have been the responsibility of the Center since 1965 under continuing support from the United States Department of Labor. Staff have been called upon for human resource planning assistance throughout the world with major studies conducted in Bolivia, Ecuador and Venezuela, and recently the National Science Foundation requested a review of the state of the art in human resource planning. Senior personnel are also engaged in several other areas of research including collective bargaining and labor relations, evaluation and monitoring of the operation of government employment and training programs and the projection of health education and facility needs.

The Center for Human Resource Research has received over one million dollars annually from government agencies and private foundations to support its research in recent years. Providing support have been the U.S. Departments of Labor, State, and Health, Education and Welfare; Ohio's Health and Education Departments and Bureau of Employment Services; the Ohio cities of Columbus and Springfield; the Ohio AFL-CIO; and the George Gund Foundation. The breadth of research interests may be seen by examining a few of the present projects.

The largest of the current projects is the National Longitudinal Surveys of Labor Force Behavior. This project involves repeated interviews over a fifteen year period with four groups of the United States population: older men, middle-aged women, and young men and women. The data are collected for 20,000 individuals by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, and the Center is responsible for data analysis. To date dozens of research monographs and special reports have been prepared by the staff. Responsibilities also include the preparation and distribution of data tapes for public use. Beginning in 1979, an additional cohort of 12,000 young men and women between the ages of 14 and 21 will be studied on an annual basis for the following five years. Again the Center will provide analysis and public use tapes for this cohort.

The Quality of Working Life Project is another ongoing study operated in conjunction with the cities of Springfield and Columbus, in an attempt to improve both the productivity and the meaningfulness of work for public employees in these two municipalities. Center staff serve as third party advisors, as well as researchers, to explore new techniques for attaining management-worker cooperation.

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A third area of research in which the Center has been active is manpower planning both in the U.S. and in developing countries. A current project for the Ohio Advisory Council for Vocational Education seeks to identify and inventory the highly fragmented institutions and agencies responsible for supplying vocational and technical training in Ohio. These data will subsequently be integrated into a comprehensive model for forecasting the State's supply of vocational and technical skills.

Another focus of research is collective bargaining. In a project for the U.S. Department of Labor, staff members are evaluating several current experiments for "expedited grievance procedures," working with unions and management in a variety of industries. The procedural adequacies, safeguards for due process, cost and timing of the new procedure are being weighed against traditional arbitration techniques.

Senior staff also serve as consultants to many boards and commissions at the national and state level. Recent papers have been written for the Joint Economic Committee of Congress, The National Commission for Employment and Unemployment Statistics, The National Commission for Manpower Policy, The White House Conference on the Family, the Ohio Board of Regents, the Ohio Governor's Task Force on Health, and the Ohio Governor's Task Force on Welfare.

The Center maintains a working library of approximately 6,000 titles which includes a wide range of reference works and current periodicals. Also provided are computer facilities linked with those of the University and staffed by approximately a dozen computer programmers. They serve the needs of in-house researchers and users of the National Longitudinal Survey tapes.

For more information on specific Center activities or for a copy of the Publications List, write: Director, Center for Human Resource Research, Suite 585, 1375 Perry Street, Columbus, Ohio 43201.